

Counselor Education and Supervision

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COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION

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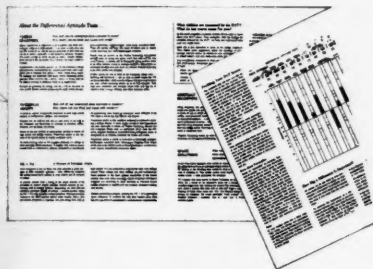
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Editorial

With this issue, *Counselor Education and Supervision* moves from the experimental to the production stage of development. As with any infant who discovers he can walk, this first step is taken with a great deal of confidence — and trepidation. Confidence because we believe this could represent a significant contribution to counselor education and supervision. Trepidation because we are acutely aware of the fact that we may not be successful.

Note that this issue is largely filled with articles directly related to counselor education. It does not seem likely that future issues can legitimately be this heavily weighted in one area. More quality manuscripts are badly needed *now* if this Journal is to become a significant publication. Manuscripts will be considered appropriate if they deal with any one or more of the following areas: (1) Counselor education; (2) Guidance supervision; (3) Problems and issues facing the school counseling movement; (4) Research studies adding to the substantive content of counseling and guidance; or (5) Pertinent and timely reviews of the literature associated with any area of interest to counselor educators or guidance supervisors. It seems essential that the purposes of this Journal be viewed as broader in scope than is indicated by the contents of this issue. It is legitimate to expect that a heavier emphasis will be placed on counselor education and guidance supervision than would be found in other professional APGA publications but it is not reasonable or legitimate to expect that the contents of this journal should be limited to these areas.

It is hoped that this will become a journal where controversial issues in counselor education and supervision can be discussed from many standpoints. Manuscripts from those critical of current practices in these areas will be welcomed. Such manuscripts should not be limited to those directly engaged in counselor education or supervision. Many more manuscripts are needed from guidance supervisors. It is our intention that this area should receive equal emphasis with counselor education.

Future editorials appearing in this Journal will, it is planned, more nearly deserve the title "editorial." At this stage of development, however, it was felt that the needs and aspirations of the Editorial Board stated here deserved expression.

—K.H.

A Rationale for Counselor Certification

C. HAROLD McCULLY

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This paper was prepared in response to an invitation to serve on a three-member panel which had been asked to discuss the general topic of "Reciprocity in Counselor Education." When the author began serious study of the topic it proved to be a Pandora's Box, and a host of difficult questions emerged.

A discussion of reciprocity in counselor certification is at once complex in part because it appears impossible to consider the question of reciprocity in isolation. Discussion of reciprocity would be vacuous indeed in the absence of pointed attention to the status of counselor certification. And once the question of certification is raised there is no choice but to include consideration of programs of counselor education which precede and presumably lead to certification. But such programs raise the vital question of accreditation, and the latter can be brought into focus only by attention to professional standards or criteria for counselor education on which such accreditation might be based (2). But there still remains an additional factor in the complex; namely, identifying with clarity the distinguished role the school counselor plays, or "ought" to play.

Since full consideration of the interrelated factors mentioned is beyond the scope of this paper, attention will be focused upon what appears to be central to their consideration, either severally or in combination.

First, it is essential to realize that the words certification and licensure are often used interchangeably (8). Despite their similarities they do differ in some important respects. The constitution of every state contains one or more sections on education. These provisions grant broad powers to the State for the establishment and maintenance of an efficient system of public schools. Included among these powers is the authority to impose uniform educational requirements including certification (4). The purpose of certification in education is to protect the public through attempting to guarantee a minimum level of a particular kind of competence on the part of persons certified. It is to be noted that parent patrons of public schools do not have freedom of choice among individual practitioners in education. This accentuates the importance of the guarantee as to minimum level of competence of educational practitioners. The power of certification of educational practitioners stems directly from the state's authority to regulate public education within its borders. Licensure, on

the other hand stems directly from the state's police power, *i.e.* to protect public health, safety and welfare (1,4). It is employed in the so-called fee-taking professions and in certain non-professional occupations, with the purpose of protecting the public from quackery and malpractice. Note also that in the case of licensed occupations, be they professional or not, clients ordinarily have freedom of choice among individual practitioners.

The power of certification of practitioners in a profession is a far reaching power in a democracy. It is in fact the power to admit or to refuse admittance to the occupation as well as the power to expel from the occupation. While its central purpose is that of protecting the public from quackery and incompetence, its influence ramifies in ways which profoundly affect the individual practitioners as well as the life and development of the corporate group of practitioners. At any given time the operational status of certification, including how and by whom it is controlled, is a fair barometer of the stage of professional development of the corporate group of practitioners (9).

Certification is an official and public finding that a person possesses at least a minimum level of competence to perform a specified social service. Implicit in this is the assumption that performance of the specified social service involves a degree of difficulty and complexity which, in the interest of the public, makes it inadvisable or dangerous for persons who do not possess at least the minimum level of competence to perform, or try to perform the service. Implicit also is the assumption that competent practitioners who perform the specified social service are members of an identified occupational group which is distinguished from other occupational groups, distinguished in part because other occupational groups possess neither the particular competence nor the delegation of authority to perform the specified social service. The specified social service is unique in the sense that it is performed by members of one identified occupational group, and by no others. It is axiomatic that the specified social service must be clear and definite so that it can be distinguished from other social services and so that its nature and worth can be understood and appreciated, because the decision to delegate responsibility for its performance to a single occupational group is properly a lay decision, and the public has a need to know what is being delegated. The concept of certification assumes the existence of an occupational group which possesses one of the major characteristics of a profession; namely, performance of a unique and definite social service (1: chap. 1).

Do school counselors perform a "unique" social service in the sense described? This is a pivotal question bearing on counselor certification. An affirmative answer would mean that the service provided by school counselors is not provided by other school personnel, and in the absence of school counselors the service is not provided. Based on available evi-

dence, it seems most difficult to sustain that generally school counselors are now providing a unique service which is clearly distinguished from the services provided by school administrators, by teachers, and by other student personnel workers (5). To the extent that this is true, the very foundation of counselor certification is in jeopardy. There seem to be unremitting influences at work which perpetuate the idea that, after all, school counselors are teachers, and are distinguished from their fellow teachers chiefly by the manner in which they spend their time, rather than on the basis of a unique service they provide, and the professional preparation required to provide it. These influences are manifested in practices of selection for counselor education, in counselor certification practices, and in hiring practices. It is noteworthy that these practices are based on institutional folkways rather than on empirical findings. Unless and until the school counselor can be distinguished from teachers, from school administrators, and from other student personnel workers on the basis of the unique service he performs we have no really valid foundation for counselor certification, and had as well repose under the protective umbrella of teacher certification.

Do school counselors provide a "definite" service, *i.e.* clearly understood by all concerned? In this connection Dugan has recently stated: "There is much variation in the concept of counseling, not only within the profession but as an out growth of this, a certain amount of confusion in the minds of the lay public, school administrators, and perhaps even of eminent spokesmen who seek to inform the public on the task of guidance and counseling" (3). Perhaps if the service were more "definite" it would be more feasible to determine whether it is "unique."

Implicit also in the concept of certification is the element of control, *i.e.* the power to certify or to refuse to certify. How and by whom that power is exercised is of supreme importance. If it is exercised capriciously, or if it is under the domination of vested lay or professional interests which are unwilling to accept delegation of the specified social service to the occupational group in question, the central purpose of certification is likely to be aborted. Of equal importance is the validity of the standards or criteria on which basis the power is exercised. Unless those standards or criteria are such as to yield a reasonably valid estimate of the level of competence of the candidate for certification to perform the specified social service, society has no assurance that the purpose of certification is being realized.

The control of certification of educational practitioners in America, including both teachers and counselors, is clearly vested in state boards of education in the several states. Each of these boards is composed entirely or preponderantly of lay members (2,7). This is at variance with general practice in licensure of the established professions where the

licensure board either is composed of practitioner members, or is dominated by the corporate group of practitioners (1). Control of certification of educational practitioners by lay boards is likely to continue since it is firmly based on constitutional or legislative provisions and deeply imbedded in the tradition of state control of education. This accepted fact of lay control of certification brings into focus the paramount importance of the standards or criteria employed in the act of certifying. If the standards are such as will validly screen for a particular kind of specialized competence, it follows that they can be developed only by persons who have that competence. The judgments required are expert judgments, not lay judgments.

In the effective use of the expert in a democracy, particularly in connection with the control of public education, we have been inclined historically to fuzzy thinking. Lieberman has treated this question in a lucid manner (6: chap. 4; 10). If a needed social service can be provided only by persons possessing a particular kind of competence, no one holds that delegation of its performance to the group of individuals who have the competence is undemocratic. No one questions that delegating the practice of medicine only to physicians is undemocratic. No one holds it to be undemocratic for physicians to set standards for medical training. But in the setting of standards for educational practitioners, many groups, both lay and professional, want to get into the act, holding that to do otherwise is undemocratic. This obscures a democratic society's need for and reliance upon expert judgment. If certification is to screen out persons who do not possess a particular competence, and screen in persons who do, the standards by which this is done must be based on expert rather than lay judgments. Accordingly, in the development of standards for counselor certification the individuals competent to exercise expert judgment would be school counselor practitioners, counselor educators and professional (as distinguished from administrative) counselor supervisors. The judgments of all other groups, including school administrators and teachers, would in this context be lay judgment.

In a rationale for counselor certification, I see no basis or justification at the present time for differential certification for entry. We have enough difficulty in demonstrating that the service of the school counselor is "unique" and "definite," without attempting a splintering of the function, either vertically or horizontally. Neither do I see any room in the rationale for differential certification standards among states; the expert judgments on which such professional standards should be based are not concerned with or affected by state lines (7). This is not in conflict with the tradition of state control of education on the premise that if the state desires to make the service of the school counselor available, it would not desire to spend funds for this purpose unless the individuals employed were

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competent to provide the service. Finally, there appears to be no basis in the rationale to support the idea of certifying half-trained counselors for half-time work, or for waiving certification for less than half-time assignment.

Table I below presents information regarding the current status of school counselor certification.

TABLE I — Summary of Selected Characteristics of School Counselor Certification Practices In The United States*

Category	No. of States**	Category	No. of States
1. Status of Certification		6. Type of Teacher Certification Required*****	
a. Mandatory	35	a. Teacher Certification	19
b. Optional	4	b. Secondary School Teaching Certificate	3
c. None	12	c. Teaching Certificate and Secondary School Teaching Certificate	2
2. No. Different Types of School Counselor Certificates		d. Elementary or Secondary Teaching Certificate	1
a. One	10	e. Certificate to teach at level of Counseling Certification	3
b. Two	14	f. Certificate to Teach in Public Schools	2
c. Three	6	g. None Mentioned	5
d. Four	3	7. Extent to Which Degrees Are Required For Certification****	
e. Five	1	a. No Degree Mentioned	7
f. Six	0	d. Bachelors	7
g. Seven	1	c. Masters	20
3. Aggregate No. of Certificates Issued for 35 States	80	8. No. of Specified Hours in Counseling and Guidance In The 20 State Requiring Masters	
4. No. Yrs. Teaching Experience Required For Counselor Certification		a. No hours specified	4
a. One	3	b. 15 semester hours	2
b. Two	15	c. 15-18 semester hours	1
c. Three	9	d. 18 semester hours	6
d. Four	0	e. 19-24 semester hours	1
e. Five	1	f. 21 semester hours	1
f. One and Two***	3	g. 24 semester hours	5
h. One and Three	1	9. No. of Specified Hours in Counseling and Guidance In The 15 States Not Requiring Masters	
i. Three and Five	1	a. 12 semester hours	2
j. None Specified	2	b. 15 semester hours	1
5. No. Yrs. Work Experience Required for Counselor Certification*****		c. 18 semester hours	2
a. None	14	d. 22 semester hours	1
b. One-four year	1	e. 24 semester hours	2
c. One-half year	1	f. 30 semester hours	6
d. Three-fourths year	1		
e. One year	17		

- *Based on Brewster, Royce *Guidance Workers Certification Requirements*
- **Indicates 50 States plus the District of Columbia
- ***Some states specify 2 levels of teaching experience if more than one level of school counselor certification is available
- ****In addition 1 state requires 3 years of approved occupational experience for certification as a "Guidance and Placement Counselor in a Vocational School"
- *****One state, while not requiring a degree, does include a note to the effect that if an applicant has a masters with special emphasis in guidance and counseling, his academic requirements may vary from those required of other applicants

From Table I above, the following summary findings are apparent:

- (1) Thirty-four states and the District of Columbia have some form of counselor certification. Thus the essentiality of the function performed by school counselors has not been universally recognized.
- (2) Among the thirty-five jurisdictions having some form of counselor certification, there is a multiplicity of titles and certificates.
- (3) Many states require a specified amount of teaching experience, and a number require experience other than teaching for the entry certificate. This is tantamount to denying that programs of formal counselor education are sufficient to develop the professional competence needed by school counselors.
- (4) Most of the states make counselor certification contingent upon prior teacher certification. This institutional folkway pyramids on counselor certification all the vagaries and problems of teacher certification which currently is, and since 1906 has been, described by informed persons as chaotic (8: chap. 1;2). Furthermore, it impinges on the amount of formal professional counselor preparation which realistically can be required of the school counselor. This will be increasingly exacerbated with the growth of five-year programs for teacher certification.

In addition to these findings, one additional observation seemed appropriate as the publication on which this Table was based was studied: namely, the standards used in inferring competence in counselor certification rest on course titles, an itinerary in effect, showing the route followed by the candidate. This may have little to do with his condition upon arrival.

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The Counselor Educator and the Guidance Supervisor: Graduate Training and Occupational Mobility

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Included among the many effects of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 is the increased attention given to the positions of counselor educator and guidance supervisor. The implementation of Title V-A of NDEA has made it possible and necessary for state departments of guidance to add a great number of professional personnel to their staffs. Likewise, the counseling and guidance training institutes provided for under Title V-B of NDEA have compelled universities who contracted with the U. S. Office of Education to employ an ever-increasing number of counselor educators. There is general agreement within the profession that counselor educators and guidance supervisors are receiving more attention and assuming more responsibilities in their work environments than ever before.

Problem

Although attention has recently been focused upon the kind of programs that should be provided for the education of counselors (3), little if anything has been said about the people who are or should be directing these programs. It is the purpose of this paper to provide and comment upon data pertinent to the graduate training and occupational mobility of counselor educators and guidance supervisors. Specifically, data will be presented on four topics: (1) the level of graduate training of counselor educators and guidance supervisors, (2) the relationship between the geographical region in which these groups received their highest degree and the geographical region in which they are currently employed, (3) the universities that have granted doctorates to these groups, and (4) trends in the nature of the doctorates taken by these groups.

Method

For purposes of this study counselor educators were defined operationally as members of the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision who were affiliated with colleges and universities. Guidance supervisors were defined as members of ACES who were affiliated with state departments of education. Individuals comprising these groups and the

other data in this study were drawn from an analysis of the Fourth Edition of the APGA Directory of Members, 1961-1962. The resulting study group was comprised of 350 counselor educators and 100 guidance supervisors. Not included in the study group were members of ACES whose primary affiliation was with the U. S. Government, public school systems, foundations, or private enterprise. It should also be pointed out that the study group does not include all counselor educators or guidance supervisors who are *eligible* for membership in ACES. This is an important limitation of the data, for a number of people who have been trusted with important responsibilities in counselor education are not included in the study group. This fact becomes distressingly clear when it is realized that 35 of the 92 Directors of NDEA Institutes conducted in 1961 do not hold membership in ACES. Nevertheless, it is probable that the study group is larger and more representative than a group determined by the result of a questionnaire survey, for included in the study group are all counselor educators and guidance supervisors who deemed it desirable to become affiliated with their appropriate professional association.

Findings and Discussion

1. *Level of training.* Table I shows the level of training of members of the study group. Since 84.6 per cent of the counselor educators hold doctorates as compared with 28 per cent of the guidance supervisors, there can be no doubt but that counselor educators have on the whole received much more advanced training than guidance supervisors. To some degree, this finding is understandable in terms of the different expectations that universities and state departments have of their employees. If, however, as suggested by Hummel (1), the main duties of state guidance supervisors are to include consultation, research, and counselor education duties, it would appear necessary for the level of training of guidance supervisors to approach that of counselor educators, since the two groups will be performing many similar functions. These comments are not intended to be critical of state supervisors. Rather, the

TABLE I
LEVEL OF TRAINING OF STUDY GROUP MEMBERS

Degree	Counselor Educators		Guidance Supervisors	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Ph.D.	149	42.6	13	13
Ed.D.	147	42.0	15	15
Masters	39	11.1	61	61
Bachelors	1	0.3	3	3
Not Given	14	4.0	8	8
TOTAL	350	100.0	100	100.0

intent is to urge this group to acquire the level of training that will enable them to carry out the list of duties described by Hummel.

2. *Region of degree and employment.* Tables II and III provide a comparison of the region in which counselor educators and guidance supervisors, respectively, took their highest earned degrees and the region in which they are currently employed. An analysis of Table II reveals that 46.7 per cent of this group are working in the geographic region in which they took their highest degree. The Middle Atlantic States have the largest percentage of regionally-trained counselors (67.2%), and the East South Central States the smallest percentage (11.1%). In effect, then, there is no region of the country in which less than one-third of the counselor educators come from outside the geographic region. This statistic should be interpreted as one rough indication of the extent to which new

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ACES BY
GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF EMPLOYMENT AND
GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF INSTITUTION
GRANTING HIGHEST DEGREE*

Region of Employment	Region Granting Highest Degree									TOTAL
	New Eng.	Mid. Atl.	E. No. Cent.	W. No. Cent.	So. Atl.	E. So. Cent.	W. So. Cent.	Moun- tain	Paci- fic	
New England	6	6	2	0	3	0	0	1	1	19
Middle Atlantic	3	43	10	2	0	0	1	0	5	64
E. No. Central	1	11	40	15	3	0	1	2	5	78
W. No. Central	1	3	11	22	0	0	0	3	2	42
South Atlantic	0	14	10	2	8	0	0	1	2	37
E. So. Central	0	3	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	9
West So. Central	1	1	6	5	0	0	7	2	2	24
Mountain	0	1	7	4	0	0	0	11	2	25
Pacific	0	3	6	5	0	0	1	4	19	38
TOTAL	12	85	94	56	14	1	11	25	38	336

*In Tables II and III, the states included in specific regions are the following:

New England: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont.

Middle Atlantic: New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania.

East North Central: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin.

West North Central: Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota.

South Atlantic: Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, Washington, D.C.

East South Central: Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee.

West South Central: Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas.

Mountain: Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming.

Pacific: California, Hawaii, Oregon, Washington.

ideas and experiences in counselor education appear to be flowing freely from one geographic region to another.

A similar analysis of Table III indicates that of the guidance supervisors for whom data is available 84.8 per cent are employed in the region in which they took their highest degree. In fact, in five of the nine geographical regions listed in Table III there is employed *not one* guidance supervisor who took his highest degree outside of the region in which he is employed. This is truly *in-breeding*, and does not appear to be a healthy situation. Of course, there can be many explanations for the fact that such a large percentage of guidance supervisors are employed in regions where they have taken their training. For example, state departments may wish to employ individuals who are familiar with the schools in their state and therefore choose residents of the state. Again a number of state department appointments are political in nature, and, not surprisingly, local candidates are given preference. Further, the vast majority of guidance supervisors do not possess the doctorate and, consequently, their occupational mobility may be limited by this factor. What should concern both counselor educators and guidance supervisors about these data is that new ideas cannot flow freely into a region if the vast majority of people in that region have received their training in the region. In effect, these data suggest that new ideas must come into a region with the addition of new staff members to the universities which in turn train state supervisors. This is not the kind of relationship that ought to obtain between counselor education programs and state departments of guidance. Outsiders should be brought into state departments and they should make an impact on the counselor education programs of the region.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF STATE DEPARTMENT ACES BY GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF EMPLOYMENT AND GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF INSTITUTION GRANTING HIGHEST DEGREE.

Region Granting Highest Degree

Region of Employment	New Eng.	Mid. Atl.	E. No. Cent.	W. No. Cent.	So. Atl.	E. So. Cent.	W. So. Cent.	Mountain	Pacific	TOTAL
New England	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
Mid. Atlantic	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
E. No. Central	0	0	16	1	0	0	0	0	0	17
W. No. Central	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	10
So. Atlantic	5	0	0	0	8	0	0	1	0	14
E. So. Central	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
W. So. Central	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	4
Mountain	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	6	1	10
Pacific	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	7	10
TOTAL	11	18	19	13	8	4	4	7	8	92

Counselor education programs and state departments of guidance should complement each other, and thereby improve the functioning of both. This situation cannot prevail if the universities of a region almost exclusively staff the state departments of the region.

3. *Universities granting doctorates.* Table IV presents an alphabetical listing of the universities that have granted doctorates to members of the study group, as well as showing the number and nature of the degrees awarded by each university. Although 63 universities have granted doctorates to study group members, nine of these universities (Columbia, Indiana, Minnesota, Michigan State, Missouri, Ohio State, Stanford, Colorado, and Wisconsin) account for almost half of these degrees (48%). It is also interesting to note that six of these leading "producers" of counselor educators and guidance supervisors primarily grant the Ed.D., whereas Minnesota, Ohio State, and Wisconsin grant Ph.D.'s only. As will be shown later, this is a significant factor.

TABLE IV
UNIVERSITIES GRANTING DOCTORATES TO
STUDY GROUP MEMBERS

University	Ed.D.	Ph.D.	Number
Boston University	5	1	6
Buffalo	1	0	1
Univ. of California	6	2	8
UCLA	3	0	3
Catholic University	0	1	1
Chicago	0	7	7
Univ. of Cincinnati	1	0	1
Colorado	12	0	12
Colorado State	4	0	4
Columbia	28	14	42
Univ. of Connecticut	0	1	1
Cornell	0	2	2
Denver	1	3	4
Duke	1	0	1
Florida	1	0	1
Florida State	1	0	1
Fordham	0	3	3
George Washington	3	0	3
Harvard	5	0	5
Illinois	1	2	3
Indiana	16	1	17
Iowa	0	2	2
Iowa State	0	1	1
Kansas	5	4	9

TABLE IV (Continued)

University	Ed.D.	Ph.D.	Total
Kentucky	2	0	2
LSU	0	2	2
Loyola (Chicago)	1	0	1
Maryland	0	1	1
Michigan	0	5	5
Michigan State	10	5	15
Minnesota	0	16	16
Mississippi	1	0	1
Missouri	13	2	15
Nebraska	4	3	7
New York University	0	7	7
North Carolina	0	3	3
North Dakota	1	1	2
Northwestern	1	7	8
North Texas State	1	0	1
Ohio State	0	13	13
Oklahoma	1	1	2
Oklahoma State	1	0	1
Oregon	1	0	1
Oregon State	2	0	2
Penn	0	4	4
Penn State	3	0	3
Pitt	1	3	4
Purdue	0	4	4
Rutgers	3	0	3
St. Johns	0	2	2
Southern California	2	2	4
Stanford	8	4	12
Syracuse	2	5	7
Temple	1	2	3
Texas	0	3	3
Utah	1	3	4
Washington	0	1	1
Washington State	1	0	1
Wayne State	3	0	3
Western Reserve	2	0	2
Wisconsin	0	11	11
Wyoming	1	3	4
Yale	0	3	3
TOTAL	161	160	321*

*Three individuals did not indicate the University granting their doctorate.

A comparison of the data in Table IV with McQuary's (2) data on "Doctorates Held by APGA Members" suggests that some universities are preparing a great number of doctorates in Guidance who do not go into counselor education programs or with state departments of education. For example, McQuary's 1958 study shows that New York University granted 104 doctorates to APGA members, but the data in this study (1960) indicate that only seven members of the study group took their doctorate at NYU. It is probable that a number of people who take doctorates in Guidance at urban universities with programs conducted primarily in evenings and on Saturdays go into public school systems such as those found in the Metropolitan New York Area. It is also understandable that a number of institutions may have programs that are geared primarily to train college student personnel workers. The data contained in Table IV therefore should prove of value to counselors and college advisors who are sometimes engaged in assisting undergraduates interested in careers in counselor education in the university or state department setting to select a graduate school.

4. *Trends in doctorates granted.* The doctorates held by study group members are equally divided between Ed.D.'s and Ph.D.'s. But, as is indicated in Table V, the Ed.D. has in the past decade become the more popular or common degree. In view of the fact that the majority of universities granting large numbers of degrees grant more Ed.D.'s than Ph.D.'s and considering that most new graduate programs in counselor education are Ed.D. programs, there is reason to believe that there will be far more Ed.D.'s than Ph.D.'s in the not-too-distant future. Although the Ph.D. may carry more prestige on campuses with a strong humanistic tradition, there is little reason to believe that this development will have a major effect on the counselor educators and guidance supervisors of the future. In fact, the Ed.D. degree enables prospective counselor educators to devote more of their graduate residence to the study of counseling and peripheral areas and removes a traditional but non-functional hurdle. The Ed.D. will also encourage students who were fearful of the

TABLE V
CLASSIFICATION BY DECADE OF DOCTORATES EARNED
BY STUDY GROUP MEMBERS

	1920-29	1930-39	1940-49	1950-Present	Not Given	Total
Ed.D.	0	1	24	134	3	162
Ph.D.	5	13	30	111	3	162
TOTAL	5	14	54	244	6	324

language barrier to pursue advanced training. The caution must be noted, however, that the Ed.D. must remain rigorous enough to preserve the value of the doctorate. It must be more than an accumulation of hours beyond a non-research master's degree and the submission of a term paper. It must be a vehicle through which the recipient is enabled to function at a higher professional level.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The data gathered and examined in this study suggest the following conclusions and recommendations:

1. The graduate training of counselor educators is far superior to that of guidance supervisors. If guidance supervisors are to realize their ambition to play research, consultative, and educational roles, it is clear that as a group they must receive more advanced training. Appropriate professional organizations should support the efforts of guidance supervisors to become a more professional and a more effective force in the educational programs from which counselors emerge.

2. Counselor educators are a far more cosmopolitan group than guidance supervisors, for far too many guidance supervisors receive their training in the areas in which they work. They reflect the ideas prevalent in the training schools of the region and contribute relatively little to the regional counselor education programs. They cannot view these programs from a fresh or different perspective. More state departments should employ supervisors who have received their training in programs outside of the state involved.

3. Although a few universities give the majority of doctorates that are granted to counselor educators and guidance supervisors, an ever-increasing number of universities are granting doctorates in Guidance. If these degrees are to mean anything, it is essential that the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision lead the way in the establishment and/or support of an appropriate accrediting agency. Then, efforts should be made to influence the U. S. Office of Education and other fund-granting or contracting agencies to limit their grants and contracts to institutions that are properly accredited to conduct programs in counselor education.

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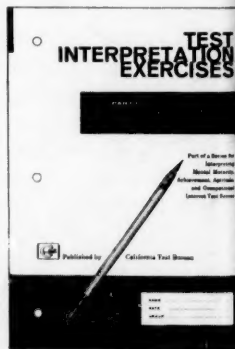
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Some Legal Implications Of The Counselor-Client Relationship: A Review Of The Literature

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Introduction

There are three principal ways in which an educational or psychological counselor may become involved with legal issues; first, he may be called upon to testify in court as an "expert witness"; second, because of the intimate nature of the material revealed in the counseling relationship, he may feel obligated to establish his "professional immunity" (the right of privileged communication); third, the counselor may become involved in a civil law suit, where it is alleged that, by either omission or commission, the counselor must be held liable for the acts of a client.

The purpose of this article is to present a survey of the literature (during the past five years, for the most part) which will point out the various sources which are available to the researcher who would wish to investigate further the legal aspects of guidance and personnel work. Reference works consulted in connection with this article were the *Index To Legal Periodicals*, *Corpus Juris Secundum*, and *American Jurisprudence*. Accompanying comments (representing the opinions of the authors) will suggest the applicability of these various materials in such research.

The Counselor as an Expert Witness

McCary (15) has defined an expert witness as a person whose special training and experience in a certain field of knowledge qualifies him to present facts to the court in their search for the truth.

The essential knowledge, . . . marks the witness as an expert (and) may . . . be derived from reading alone, . . . from practice alone, or . . . from both. Professor McCormick also notes that while a court may decide that, for a particular subject of inquiry, the expert may have to be a member of a given profession, as a doctor, an engineer, or a chemist . . . a specialist in a particular branch within that profession will not be required. In the interest of growth in law, therefore, it is fortunate that, to date, the tests with respect to a given expert's qualifications have not for the most part (become) crystallized in specific

rules, but it is recognized that the matter is one for the trial judge's discretion. . . . The object of admitting the opinion of the expert into evidence is to inform the jury as to matters with which jurors would not be sufficiently familiar to draw their own inferences.

It should not be understood that, for the purpose of expressing an expert opinion, the witness must hold some form of academic degree, or be a graduate of an institution of higher learning but he should belong to the profession or calling to which the subject matter of the inquiry is related.

McCary concludes:

Once an adequate definition of a competent psychological expert has been established by legal authorities, the problems . . . will be much nearer to a solution. It would not seem . . . improper to suggest that the several states ought now (to) enact legislation providing for the certification or licensing of psychologists, specifying the minimal education and experience background to be required. By so regulating the practice, it would be possible to create a class from which the trial judge could pick an expert without being forced to prejudge the professional competence of the witness. So long as any person may call himself a psychologist, however, it is only natural to expect that there will be resistance to the proposal that the mantle of expert witness be granted to psychologists as a class.

McCary's concern over the ". . . adequate definition of a . . . psychological expert" is well-founded. It is quite interesting to note that definitions of the terms *psychology*, *psychologist*, and *psychotherapist*, do not appear in either *Words and Phrases* or *The Dictionary of Legal Terms*. Yet, both of these reference books are widely used by the legal profession.

The Counselor and Professional Immunity

At least one Supreme Court case exists where the presiding judge did insist that the psychological expert give complete answers to all questions. Although the expert sought to invoke privileged communication for himself, the judge denied the request. This is interesting because, in that state, the doctor-patient privilege had been previously upheld.

Cottle (6) has identified the many court decisions which have granted privileged communications to the psychotherapist. Two factors seem to operate as this privilege is obtained for psychotherapists; (1) the extreme difficulty in defining psychotherapy; and (2) the difference between the psychotherapist's approach and technique and those of the medical doctor.

Cottle quotes Dean Wigmore, a leading authority in the specialty field of Evidence Law, as outlining four conditions necessary for establishing a privilege against disclosure of communications:

1. The communications must originate in the confidence that they will not be disclosed.
2. The element of confidentiality must be essential to the full and satisfactory maintenance of the relationship between the parties.
3. The relationship must be one which, in the opinion of the community, ought to be fostered.
4. The injury . . . to the relationship by the disclosure of the communication must be greater than the benefit gained thereby for the correct disposal of the litigation.

Pierson (16) has presented a very general discussion of the admissibility of evidence through testimony of expert witnesses, giving major emphasis to actual cross-examination in the courtroom.

Pierson concludes with the following summary:

In preparing to examine an expert witness to extract an opinion favorable to his case or to cross-examine the adverse party's expert in an attempt to discredit his testimony, counsel should ask himself these questions:

Are the facts to be proved appropriate ones for expert opinion?

Is the expert duly qualified?

Did he base his opinion on legally admissible evidence?

Is the hypothetical question properly posed?

Does it contain all of the essential facts?

The answers to these questions comprise the bulk of the law regarding examination of expert witnesses in Oklahoma.

Hilton (11) has discussed the ethical conduct of the expert witness. He points out that the purpose of an expert witness in any legal proceeding is to assist the court and jury in their interpretation and understanding of technical evidence. "While an expert witness has never been clearly defined as an agent of the court, regardless of who calls him, he will do well to conduct himself as though he were." However, this author gives no direct attention to the function of the personnel worker as an expert witness.

Carter (4) has defined "immunity" as "an exemption from duties which the law generally requires individuals to perform," and has cited various cases where debate over professional immunity has arisen.

At the time of his writing (1954) Carter felt that the counseling profession was suffering from a lack of statutory immunity normally granted to other professions which make use of highly personal information. It was his concern that counselors should know under what circumstances and to whom, they may make use of privileged communications without being in danger of legal action for libel or slander.

He concludes that:

It may be reasonable to assume that the general principles of statutory law dealing with privileged communications will be applied to counseling if a case arises that is not within the letter but is plainly within the spirit of the law. It is nevertheless contended that guidance . . . is of the nature that it is in the best interest of the counselor, the counselee, and the public at large, that the profession be granted statutory immunity.

The Counselor and Privileged Communication

Wrenn, (22) in discussing the various implications of handling confidential information which has been disclosed in the counseling relationship, makes a distinction between confidential notes and official office or institutional records. "The counselor may keep confidential notes on his clients in the form of personal memoranda and since these do not become part of the official records of the institution or of his office, they do not have to be released when the personnel records of an individual are taken

into custody." It would appear, however, that such "informal" data may still be extracted in court when the counselor is placed under oath.

Bakken (2) has studied the legal foundations of the many aspects of student personnel services in state colleges and universities in the United States. In this comprehensive effort, Bakken found certain interesting facts about privileged communications.

Bakken notes from the *Iowa Law Review* remarks concerning the nature of professional relationships. These state that there are three conditions to be fulfilled under privileged communication: (1) There must be one who is legally a lawyer, doctor, or minister; (2) The party must have been acting in an official capacity at the time the communication was made; and (3) The person making the communication must have regarded the professional man as his doctor, lawyer, or minister. Psychologists could be added to the list of professionals referred to above in those states which granted them privileged communication status. The *Iowa Law Review* article went on to say that some courts and most writers doubted the wisdom of the statutes on privileged communications and, consequently, would apply them very strictly. In his own research, Bakken found no doctor-patient privilege in England or in about half of the American states.

Basing an observation on court decisions to which Bakken refers, it appears that it is safe for a counselor to write letters of recommendation without fear of liability for libel or slander. Further, it appears safe for a counselor to communicate with parents about their children's condition without being subject to suit for damages.

Bakken found, as Wrenn has suggested, that data can be subpoenaed from a student's file, and data not entered officially could be obtainable only by placing the counselor under subpoena and questioning him in court.

Bakken also found that "... only two states had provided any (actual) legislation on counseling and guidance, and these had been for vocational guidance." These two states are not named, however.

Schmidt (17) discussed professional recognition, privileged communication, libel, slander, the right of privacy, malpractice, and criminal liability as they relate to the counseling psychologist.

Schmidt refers to Wiener (19) who pointed out in 1953 that twenty-seven states had medical legislation which specifically applied or had been interpreted by courts to apply to the treatment of both physical and mental conditions. In these states, the psychological counselor was technically without legal right to practice. In nine states, where restrictions on the treatment of "disease" may or may not be considered applicable to the treatment of mental ailments, the counselor was in a questionable position. Only in the remaining twelve states where the medical practices

laws were specifically inapplicable to the treatment of mental ailments or to the use of medical means of treatment, was the counselor secure with respect to the avoidance of criminal liability.

At the time of his writing, Schmidt found that "... there seem to be no cases on record involving a counselor in a litigation in which a question of privileged communication (is) involved."

At present, as is also seen in the other literature, the psychologist is a controversial figure as far as his status as an expert witness is concerned.

While in the past, courts have refused to accept the testimony of psychologists in their areas of competency, much progress toward professional recognition has been made recently, and courts are becoming more inclined toward recognizing the psychologist.

Schmidt presents an excellent bibliography which pertains to the legal position of the counseling psychologist.

Assuming that the predicament of the counseling psychologist and that of the educational and vocational counselor are analogous, this paper by Schmidt is one of the most adequate sources reviewed during the present study.

Barker (3) has described his impressions of the book, *Psychiatry and The Law*. He discusses the role played by the psychiatrist in legal cases where the mental condition of an individual is concerned.

Thorough discussion is given to the details of presentations made in court by the expert witness. The permissible types of questioning are discussed. Privileges in the courtroom are emphasized with little attention to his privileges as they vary from state to state.

There is no discussion of the psychiatrist's civil liability as regards the outcome of his relationships with his patients. Barker's principal emphasis is to fit the psychiatrist's diagnostic testimony into a legal context.

In a two-part article, Louisell (14) discusses "The Psychologist In Today's Legal World." This article is applicable to the educational counselor, and the many cases cited would provide most substantial background reading. The books cited include *Psychology and The Law*, and *Jurisprudence and Contemporary Psychology*.

Louisell quotes Professor Wigmore:

Both law and practice permit the calling of any expert scientist whose method is acknowledged in his science to be a sound and trustworthy one. Whenever the psychologist is ready for the courts, the courts are ready for him.

In part two of his article, Louisell points out the growing acceptance of the confidential nature of the work done by psychologists and counselors. The matter of privileged communication is considered also:

Counseling services, while action might be on a counselor-client or patient status, were not given privileged communication status except in the six states referred to (Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, New York, Washington) ... In all states except the six mentioned, counseling relationships, while professionally confidential, were not legally confidential.

The six states mentioned above place the confidential relations on the same basis as those provided by law between attorney and client. A case for privileged status was pending in California at the time of Louisell's writing. The outcome of this case was not revealed in the course of the present study.

According to Louisell, Montana forbade teachers of psychology, acting in the study and observation of a child's mentality, to testify in civil actions without the consent of a parent or guardian. There were four other states which required certification for psychologists, namely, Connecticut, Maine, Minnesota, and Virginia, but these states did not provide privileged communication.

Cusack (7) points out the increasing importance of the expert witness in the field of torts, and comments that "... it is not unusual that the psychologist is taking his rightful place in this field." This author's emphasis is, in particular, upon defining the work of the clinical psychologist. He states that "In the tort field, the use of the clinical psychologist is specifically indicated when there is traumatic brain damage."

The author points out that "... the courts in this country have, until quite recently, failed to give a precise legal definition of the psychologist," which confirms the inconsistency in terminology which has appeared repeatedly during the present study.

A Michigan criminal case is cited where insanity was determined for the defendant on the basis of the testimony of a clinical psychologist. The competency of the psychologist to make such a diagnosis was questioned and the case was appealed to a higher court.

Five of the eight justices of the Michigan State Supreme Court concurred in handing down the following opinion which supports the decision of the lower court:

... (we) cannot agree with the proposition that because insanity is a disease and comes within the realm of medical science, that only physicians are competent to answer hypothetical questions on behalf of a defendant in a criminal case. The law does not require a rule so formal, and (we) do not think we would further the cause of justice by insisting that only a medical man may completely advise on the subject of mental condition.

Hurley (12) states that, in Oregon, a person cannot be examined as a witness in court if he or she is included in any of the following classifications:

1. Husband testifying against wife or wife testifying against husband (except in criminal proceedings or civil actions);
2. Attorney testifying without the consent of his client;
3. Priest or clergyman testifying without the consent of penitent or confessor;
4. Physician or surgeon testifying without the consent of the patient;
5. Public officers testifying as to communications made to him in official confidence, when the public interest would suffer by the disclosure;
6. Stenographer, testifying without the consent of his or her employer.

The law in Oregon further states that, "If a party to the action . . . offers himself as a witness, it is deemed a consent to examination also of a wife, husband, attorney, clergyman, physician or surgeon on the same subject."

The "public officers" clause is perhaps the most closely applicable to the position of the guidance-personnel worker. With regard to precedents, however, there are only two; one deals with statements made to a District Attorney, and the other deals with the remarks made by one juror to another.

According to Hurley, Oregon law, in 1957, gave no attention to the matter of privileged communication for the personnel worker.

An article appearing in the *University of Pennsylvania Law Review* (1) takes the point of view that marriage counselors, to perform their work under optimum conditions, and with optimum effectiveness, should be granted a privilege for confidential communication.

Recent data of the American Association of Marriage Counselors indicates that forty-eight per cent of its members are doctors and eight and one-half per cent of its members are clergymen. In addition, a number of lawyers necessarily practice marriage counseling to a limited extent in the course of their general duties.

Since more than half of the marriage counselors (as attorneys), already have a special privilege by virtue of their "primary profession," it might be asked why a special privilege for their counseling services is needed.

. . . The remainder of those presently engaged in professionally recognized counseling are social workers, sociologists, psychologists and educators, none of whom have a specially recognized privilege.

In summary, the article indicates that the trend of the law has been to narrow privileges for confidential communications. It is strongly felt that marriage counseling is deserving of this protection. On the other hand, seeking an early solution to the rising divorce rate, and considering the beneficial effect which counseling may have, it must be borne in mind that it is admittedly difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of marriage counseling by attorneys and it would appear unwise to grant a privilege to a new profession without some guarantee as to its effectiveness.

A suggested orientation is to encourage lawyers to make (referrals) to counselors and to allow a privilege in this limited case. This could have the result of elevating the prestige of the profession in the public's eyes, and at the same time encouraging the person with marital difficulties to derive the utmost benefit by a free communication in the knowledge that his confidences cannot be divulged.

An article appearing in *The Irish Law Times and Solicitor's Journal* (18) describes hearsay as being one of the difficult branches of the law of evidence. Although definitions vary, one which appears to be acceptable to most European agencies is the following:

(Hearsay is) a third party's assertion narrated to the court by a witness for the purpose of establishing the truth of that which was uttered.

Testimony in court concerning hearsay and emphasizing the truth of

this hearsay is not admissible as evidence. Testimony stating that such-and-such was *uttered*, and testimony which stops with this statement, is admissible as evidence.

According to this article, "... The purpose for which the evidence is offered is the determining element that distinguishes hearsay from what is not."

Although this article provides interesting discussion of the definition of hearsay, it does not consider direct applicability of the concept to personnel and guidance work, nor does it refer to precedent cases which have involved personnel workers.

The Wisconsin Supreme Court Case A Much-Needed Precedent

The implications of this case for the future guidance programs in the schools and colleges of this country become clear with the realization that at the present time there are approximately 25,000 full or part-time counselors employed by the schools and colleges in 50 states. Any one of them might have been the defendant in this case. To establish a precedent that a cause of action is stated by the facts pleaded here would create an occupational hazard of indeterminate proportions for each of these individuals and would, in effect, undermine the effectiveness of a part of the public educational program that needs to be greatly strengthened at the present time.—James Conant.

That the Iverson case is in many ways a classic is a statement which needs little defense. Throughout the literature the statement recurs to the effect that no cases are on record in which legal aspects of the counselor-client relationship have been tested in court. The actual legal immunity of the counselor, that is, his right to privileged communication, has not been tried in the courts. Nowhere in the literature surveyed in connection with this article were cases found where school guidance and personnel workers appeared in court as expert witnesses.

General Background of the Case:

Dr. Ralph G. Iverson, a Professor of Education holding a Ph.D. degree, is the Director of Student Personnel Services, which services include guidance and counseling, at Stout State College, Menominee, Wisconsin.

Jeannie Bogust, the daughter of the Plaintiffs, was a student at Stout State College. On November 11, 1957 she sought the services of the Defendant in his official capacity as Director of Student Personnel Services. At this time, Dr. Iverson began administering aptitude, achievement, and personality tests to her, and interviewed her subsequently.

On April 15, 1958, Dr. Iverson suggested a termination of future inter-

views and it appears that the final interview took place on this date.

Forty-two days later, on May 27, 1958, Jeannie Bogust committed suicide.

Complaint as Alleged By Mr. and Mrs. Bogust:

The plaintiffs, Mr. and Mrs. Bogust, charge that Mr. Iverson was negligent with their daughter in that he:

1. Failed to secure or attempt to secure emergency psychiatric treatment after he was aware or should have been aware of her inability to care for the safety of herself;
2. Failed at all times to advise Mr. and Mrs. Bogust or contact them concerning the true mental and emotional state of their said daughter, thus preventing them from securing proper medical care for her;
3. Failed to provide proper student guidance.

The plaintiffs sought the following judgment against Mr. Iverson in their suit:

1. \$3,500 for funeral expenses
2. \$15,000 for general damages
3. For costs, disbursements, and attorney's fees of the action.

Defense in Behalf of Mr. Iverson:

Permission was granted by the Wisconsin State Supreme Court for briefs to be filed in behalf of Mr. Iverson by The American Personnel and Guidance Association, The National Education Association, and The Wisconsin Education Association. Each of these associations retained separate law firms to prepare their respective briefs.

In their case against Mr. Iverson, the plaintiffs, Mr. and Mrs. Bogust, asked the court to accept certain bare allegations as stating a necessary course of action based upon the existence of a legal duty (tort). The attorneys for The American Personnel and Guidance Association found that the plaintiffs were inclined to use assumptions as bases of fact. The amicus curiae brief of The American Personnel and Guidance Association points out that "... court needs no citation for the statement of law that assumptions are not facts." On this basis, then, the attorneys challenge, or demur against, the charges which the plaintiffs make.

The Judgement:

Jeannie Bogust was, according to the complaint, suffering emotional disturbances when she first sought counseling from defendant. Defendant is a teacher, a professor of education. Nowhere is it alleged that he has had any education, training or experience in the medical field. No case has been cited to the Court which suggests that a teacher is an insurer or guarantor of the health, welfare or safety of his pupils. To hold that a teacher who has had no training, education or experience in medical fields is required to recognize in a student a condition, the diagnosis of which is in a specialized and technical medical field, would require a duty beyond reason. The Court feels that such a requirement is too high and that no duty can be spelled from such a situation. In the absence of duty there can be no liability.

The importance of this decision is commented upon in a personal communication from Dr. Arthur Hitchcock, Executive Director of The American Personnel and Guidance Association:

"It was an extremely important case because had the courts not found for the defendant, then every counselor in any educational or probably (any) other setting would be liable by court precedent, for civil liability. I was very glad that our Association stood up in this case and saw it through the courts. . ."

Summary And Conclusions

The reader must bear in mind that this study was conducted by persons whose training is not in law, but education. The principal aim in this preliminary-type study was that it should be exploratory rather than definitive. In view of these limits, then, it is imperative that qualified legal counsel be utilized when, in the field, potentially dangerous situations are recognized.

It has been demonstrated that there are, in terms of legal phraseology, several ways of looking upon the counselor-client relationship. Areas of concern include civil liability, status as an expert witness, and privileged communication.

Inasmuch as school counselors (especially at the college level) enjoy privileged communications in six states, it can, in view of the rising stature of guidance as a profession, be suggested that the right to privileged communications will eventually be extended to guidance workers in other states. The literature indicates that the privilege should be instituted first at the college level and then become implemented at the high school level. This tendency, however, should not be understood as indicating that privileged communication would be less valuable in the high school than it is at the college level.

The literature concerning the legal implications of the counselor-client relationship is quite scattered. This is especially true with regard to specific references to guidance and personnel workers in the schools.

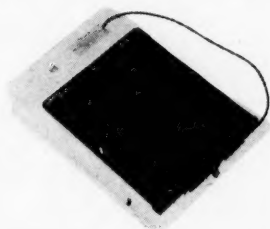
By recent State Supreme Court decision, a very valuable precedent now exists whereby a counselor was not held civilly liable for the suicide of a client. (Nor was the counselor in this present decision held responsible for the diagnosis and/or referral of his client.) The tremendous value of the precedent set by this case is offset, to some extent, by an interpretation of counselor responsibility that is not entirely in harmony with current professional opinion and state certification policy.

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Current Problems Facing The School Guidance Movement

WALTER F. LIFTON

Director of Guidance Publications and Services
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Judging from the popular press, we are going through a period where people are popularly labeled as status seekers, waste makers, or as organization men. These terms, although usually used as epithets really reflect some of the real pressures in our society. It would be folly to think that those of us in counseling have escaped these pressures.

It certainly is stimulating to be part of the guidance movement which, at least for the moment, represents a high prestige role. The Conant reports, the NDEA act, Russian Sputniks, and pressures to get into college, have all focused public attention on the role and duties of the counselor.

Almost over night the guidance movement is being forced to mature as it is required to answer probing questions being put to it by the PTA's, Legislators, and competing professional groups. As questions about certification, licensing, and role definition arise, counselors and guidance people are being forced to get off the fence on issues that were previously avoided. As a result, some areas of our professional life are likely to undergo change. The problems confronting counselors and guidance people are intimately related not only to their professional life, but also to their responsibility to society as citizens.

The Provincialism of Counselors. My first question is: How can the guidance movement shake loose from its intellectual chains so it can more realistically face the problem of the extreme range of conditions faced by the professional?

It is shocking to discover how little we really know about the guidance worker in Dubuque, Iowa, and his professional colleague in Ukiah, California. The gamut ranges from the still-existing one-room school house, to the public boarding schools in the Northwest, to the slick urban schools with staff psychiatrists. In a period when we talk about occupational mobility, how many school counselors would know what to expect if they seek a guidance job within 1000 miles of where they now work?

Traditionally, leadership for professional change comes from the Universities. An analysis of the leading counselor-training schools places them squarely in the centers of well-endowed, professionally advanced communities. As a result, awareness of differences is limited.

In the future, then, we should become greatly more familiar with the wide variety of conditions faced by counselors and guidance workers.

Mental Hygiene vs. Therapy

If you want to be liked in educational circles today, all you have to do is to be for individual difference, for academic excellence, and for broad cultural training. The unhappy side of this particular trinity is that many counselors now find themselves fostering individual difference by being responsible for sectioning the sections of fractional courses. They find themselves being asked to make olympian statements about a youngster's potential — statements which are then used as a club if the youngster doesn't measure up to prediction. The Bestors, the Rickovers, and others, have so frightened the schools that counselors seeking public approval "baa" their acceptance of a rigid curriculum which regresses to the old pattern of the trivium and the quadrivium. All research on why youngsters drop out of school, on the occupational needs of our society for skilled tradesmen as well as professional workers, and on the need to help students make a realistic adjustment to society are laid aside as we strive to achieve personal security.

If these statements seem harsh, consider the following questions:

1. With increasing knowledge about the vocational maturation process, what are counselors and guidance workers doing in the elementary school to develop positive attitudes toward jobs and the world of work?

2. With recognition of adolescence as a period of fantasy and trial experience, how can the increasing development of rigid track systems be justified at an age when the late-bloomers, the occupationally-naive, and the victims of parental ambitions have not as yet crystallized their self concept to the point where decisions based on adequate evidence can be made?

Evidence suggests that by 1970 colleges will be turning out more people than there will be college-level jobs. What are we doing to face a situation where only the rich will be able to afford to send their children to college — since the pay-off of college training may not result in increased income or job satisfaction. Do we face a threat of socio-economic stratification? What is our position on scholarships, fellowships and loans? Many present scholarships discriminate *against* a family which saves its money and *favor* the poor credit risk.

3. With the counselor's supposed familiarity with the occupational demands of society, how can mushrooming college attendance be justified while apprenticeships go unfilled?

4. Though counselors supposedly possess skill in working with groups, why are many counselors serving as disciplinarians, clerks, or attendance-

takers, and why the preoccupation of some counselors with the individual problems of the fringe element in the school?

Ample evidence indicates that administrators want counselors to work with groups of students, teachers, and parents — yet the number of such groups set up on a formal basis appears to be diminishing.

5. If counselors are really aware of the broad cultural needs of society and the concept of individual difference is really important, how can counselors and guidance workers explain their role in recruiting programs for engineers, mathematicians, and scientists, while little is heard about the need for musicians, writers, and politicians?

The previous examples were chosen because they represent the impact of forces in our society which are breeding the counseling cases of tomorrow. If the future self concept of the guidance worker is to be that of a mental hygiene worker instead of a junior size psychiatrist, what must be done to weaken those forces?

The Counselor's Responsibility As a Citizen And Professional Worker

To hold counselors personally responsible for each of the foregoing problems would be manifestly unfair. But to ask what is being done to influence public opinion so that youngsters may be more effectively provided with an optimum environment for growth, is justifiable.

An honest answer would cite the growth of the APGA and its role in influencing responsible legislation. But that is just the start. How should the following problems be faced?

1. The security of counselors is enhanced by belonging to a professional group. These groups also provide the chance for individuals to achieve status. The more groups, the more status positions. How can the trend toward more sub-groups in professional organizations be reversed and how can persons achieve security derived from emphasis on their common concerns? We can help persons find status through such emphasis.

2. In similar fashion, as counselors try to carve out a professional niche, are they overlooking the contributions of the social workers, the economists, etc? Should the future see a trend toward human relations workers instead of additional professional groups — each trying to justify their existence by splintering the needs of people?

3. The school is increasingly becoming the center for adult education. How can the counseling movement be assisted in its return to one of the original credos — that guidance is needed from the cradle to the grave? Needed is an exploration of how to overcome myopic preoccupation with high school and college attendance to the exclusion of what precedes and follows these stages.

Certainly this list could be lengthened. But professional counselors and guidance workers should not shrink from the problems.

Others want to help youngsters too. Parents and teachers want to help, but they must be helped to discover the way.

Now, however, we are going through the teenage period in the guidance movement. Like teenagers, we have moments when we would like to regress to a dependency relationship. We should focus instead on the possibilities available in adulthood, and shoulder our increased responsibilities with a growing enthusiasm for facing tomorrow.

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Differential Premises In Counselor Education

by

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The differential premises in counselor education are reflected in the varying claims of counselor education programs being offered for the preparation of secondary school counselors. These differential premises not only affect the nature of the preparation of the school counselor, but in turn, the kind of job that he is qualified to do in a school system. In this way, counselor educators exert a key leadership role in the shaping of guidance and counseling in secondary schools across the nation.

What are some of the critical differential premises? To begin with, there are differential premises relating to the generalist and the specialist. Some counselor educators believe that the preparation of the secondary school counselor should emphasize the training of a guidance worker who is a generalist in the many and varied fields of school guidance work. Others would emphasize the training of the school counselor as a specialist in a particular area. Also, it must be noted that if the specialist training is not specifically emphasized by announcement, it is by practice, because a number of schools emphasize the particular research of the counselor educators. This latter group would, perhaps, contend that the generalist is a jack of all trades while the former might contend that specialism has the danger of restricted influence and value. And, the question arises as to the proper balance between a generalist and the specialist.

Some counselor educators would emphasize that there is only time in the graduate program for specialized professional training in the guidance area. Others would argue that there should be professional training after a considerable amount of graduate work in the foundational areas of psychology, sociology, economics and other related disciplines. There is a current trend toward emphasizing a broad, liberal background for the counselor. Further, it is generally regarded that the undergraduate preparation has not given the counselor sufficient breadth to enable him to function adequately as a counselor in a rapidly changing world. Al-

though there is a contention and a trend toward a broad, liberal background for the secondary school counselor, seldom questioned is the underlying assumption that a broad sampling of course work makes for a well educated counselor. The influence of the nature of the secondary school counselor's participatory experiences in his education as a counselor has been considered infrequently.

Another issue in counselor education is whether the school counselor should be required to have one year of graduate work or two years of graduate work. Although this is intimately tied up with the other differential premises it is sometimes emphasized as a point of discussion of itself for other reasons. There are those who would emphasize that the two year program is necessary just because it takes so long for a person to mature in the various aspects of the school counselor's job. However, the premise that lengthened schooling hastens the counselor's maturation should be carefully examined.

Clinical versus educational premises seem to be creeping into the counselor education program through the direct channels of special reports by educators. Special reports which are becoming numerous these days tend to emphasize educational programming as the key, if not the only function of school guidance in contrast to those with a psychological bent who emphasize a clinical approach with considerable depth. Here again, there is an area of differential premise which needs to be resolved by the profession.

The familiar differential premises about emphasizing principles versus technique seems to be as much of an enigma as ever. Although, the emphasis of principle is given lip service, many programs seem to be technique oriented. The proper sequence and proper balance of each is certainly a necessary consideration in the training of the school counselor. Helpful in this regard may be the concept that a counseling technique is but a principle at its point of application. Counselor educators need to study the question of the how to assist counselors-in-the making to establish the relations between principles and techniques and not become embroiled in polemics concerning technique versus principle.

Another interesting and totally different premise in counselor education is the emphasis given to the resources, techniques and testing materials of guidance in contrast to the development of the counselor as a person. The latter emphasis would require a considerable amount of time for the counselor to seek a harmony between the continuities and discontinuities of his life. The former emphasis would focus on the subject matter of guidance as an intellectual adventure just as the counselor learns subject matter in any other field or as he did in his undergraduate work. The emphasis of the counselor looking at himself would tend to make the counselor education program one of a combination of cognitive and

affective learnings and personal counseling. Again, while there are some who might dispute the point, the professional problem for counselor educators seems to be one of promoting the student's integration of the intellectual and the affective aspects of counselor preparation rather than the exclusion of either.

Whether the emphasis in counselor education should be strongly psychological or vigorously educational continues to be debated. One needs to read only the recent SRA publication on the "Role of Guidance and the School Counselor" to note the difference of Mathewson, Hoppock and Tiedeman. Hoppock has been most vigorous in emphasizing the educational debt in the education of school counselors.

An additional differential premise in counselor education which needs further exploration and research is on the level and direction of the course content in the counselor education curriculum. There seems to be a massive assumption that courses which are designed for and taught by those interested in college counseling are equally applicable to those who are interested in secondary school guidance work and elementary school guidance work. Can we transpose guidance principles and practices for college work to the secondary level and then, equally appropos, can we transfer the guidance principles and practices of the secondary school level to the elementary school? Hopefully, much knowledge and experience may be generalized from one level to the next, but ever-surer looms the possibility that much of both guidance practice and principle must undergo transmutation prior to translocation.

A major differential premise relates to the emphasis given to the counseling function versus the other guidance functions in a school guidance program. One needs but to look at the report concerning the fifty Counseling and Guidance Institutes of 1959 to see the emphasis on counseling. Perhaps counseling is emphasized because this is the chief difference between the counselor and the teacher when both function in their guidance roles in the school program. Unquestionably, the counseling function is a difference between counselor and teacher, but it is a face value difference, that is, one readily observable through job analysis. There may be subtle differences in the functioning of teacher or counselor in other guidance roles which merit fuller attention in counselor education. Closer examination of counselor operation in non-counseling roles may be an area deserving of future scrutiny by counselor educators.

Differential premises in counselor education are reflected in the particular kind of selection procedures used in accepting graduate students in their counselor education program. Does the particular emphasis of a counselor education program determine the kind of selectee who will get through the program? If so, does this assist him in becoming a good school counselor or does it channel him too narrowly into one phase of

guidance work? The selection of counselors must necessarily be based on job-relevant criteria; and, the question may be raised as to whether these criteria are enlarging or constrictive forces in counselor education. It may be that there is a lack of fit between criteria currently in use in counselor selection and the roles played by the school counselor in his general guidance as well as specific counseling functions.

Some other differential factors may be involved in the special training programs of the National Defense Education Act Institutes and Fellowships versus the regular on-going program. Certainly there is some experiential evidence to indicate that there is a difference in the kind of person that comes out of an institute program versus one that continues on his own in the regular on-going program. The questions of the causes of these differences and whether the differences are desirable in direction need to be investigated by counselor educators. This, of course, relates to another factor of subtle differences involved in full-time graduate training versus part-time graduate training. Although, there is much argument that both are the same in quality and stature, in practice this can be easily challenged.

There continues to be debate as to the role of the state supervisor. Not merely in his role as consultant to school guidance programs, but also his role in counselor education programs at the various universities in his state needs to be studied. What is his function, what contributions can he make, how is he perceived, what image does he leave with the counselor educators and equally important what image of the counselor educator is seen by the state supervisors are areas for study.

A very practical differential premise in counselor education is one that would give emphasis as to what constitutes the ideal school counselor versus the one that is wanted by the school administrators. It should be recognized that school administrators presently play an important part in counselor selection. And, that if one is to set up a counselor education program, one which is considered ideal, it should be developed with reference to school administrators' ideas on functions, placement and training for meeting the needs of guidance as they see it.

This paper has presented some differential premises in counselor education. Too often counselor educators in conversation sound as if they have similar counselor education programs. However, upon careful discernment, one notes great discrepancies in approach even within the same semantic framework. Therefore, clarification of the implications involved in the above premises seems paramount for professional counselor educators and supervisors.

The Role Of The School Counselor

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Counseling is the primary function of the school counselor. In this function of counseling, the school counselor works individually with each pupil trying to help the counselee gain a meaningful perspective of his strengths and weaknesses, a clear vision of his opportunity, and a knowledge of the existing or possible interferences in his maturing and adjusting throughout life. It is not the function of the counselor to "tell" the pupil. There are enough "significant others" in each persons life committed to telling. Kahil Gibran (1:62) in *The Prophet* eloquently develops a philosophy for this counseling function:

"No man can reveal to you ought but that which already lies half asleep in the dawning of your knowledge.

"The *counselor* (mine) who walks in the shadow of the temple, among his followers, gives not of his wisdom but rather of his faith and his lovingness.

"If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind."

The school counselor committed to assisting each pupil in the struggle for self understanding has his role defined for him. This counselor must recognize his prime commitment, the attendant functions associated with this commitment, and *lastly*, must have the courage to stand up and be counted in support of this commitment. Too many so-called school counselors do not have professional preparation for the task and consequently do not recognize the uniqueness of professional counseling. Rather, these school counselors (?) reflect much more vividly their experiential background as former instructor, and end up doing many things akin to this activity.

The role of the school counselor can be identified as: (1) He is a school staff member committed to education and the educational process; (2) It is his function to study human lives and the contingent environment in which they live; (3) The school counselor should devote a two-thirds majority of his time to counseling with individuals; (4) The task of follow-up research is important in his work year; (5) He is a consultant to teachers, administrators, and parents.

Many implications attend this role for the school counselor. School administrators should demand professionally prepared counselors. They should not select chemistry teachers for counselors but chemistry teachers

to instruct in chemistry. It has always been a wonderment why counselors aren't hired in terms of their knowledge about counseling and their commitment to counseling rather than those reasons which have persisted during the past decades. In 1961, antiquated notions about the proficiency of personnel prepared as experts in instruction for implementing counseling procedures should be dissipated. I will support wholeheartedly the necessary commitment of the school counselor to education and the purposes of the school. I will continually support the desirability of a minimal amount of teaching experience or associated experience to familiarize the school counselor with classroom realities, problems and setting. This enables the school counselor to be more accepted as a school staff member. However, those persons who demand year upon year of classroom experience are closing their eyes to the tunnel vision created. The person intensely committed to school counseling will learn more about the total curriculum, the total school situation, and a broader segment of the pupil enrollment from his vantage point of counselor than in the restricted environment of one subject matter area, in one classroom, for years ad infinitum.

With what instruments can the school counselor work? The first instrument at the disposal of the school counselor is his personality. In the instructional program at the University of Wisconsin a requirement of the course *Counseling: Theory and Issues* centers on a paper "My Counselor Person" which is an attempt to have potential counselors turn inward for self reflection and assessment. If you will, self-knowledge on the part of the school counselor is as important as the counselee's self-knowledge which the counselor attempts to promote. This paper is followed by interviews devoted to clarification, further expansion and self-growth — counseling if you will. Developmental counseling is a growth process — growth in self-understanding and enhancement of adjusting as a necessary construct of life. Counseling as growth is one segment of the helping relationship continuum. One end of this continuum involving a telling (advisor or instructional function) with progression to counseling (self-growth) to psychotherapy (cure and treatment). The basic instrument for implementation of the school counselor role is one's own person.

Secondly, many instruments developed on the measurement and human development scenes are necessary for implementation of counseling. Such items as statistical concepts, standardized tests, rating scales, anecdotes, autobiographies and others too numerous to mention in this discourse are essential for functioning in a school setting. Conceptual knowledge in career development, personality development, curriculum implementation, administrative protocol and the evolving societal scene are essential if self-growth in the school setting is to be enhanced and the base for effective adult adjusting is to be established. Research tools are an essen-

tial ingredient for the school counselor. The professional role of the school counselor demands that he be a good consumer of research studies in many fields of endeavor and that he, too, research his own activity. The best way to improvement and development of quality in school counseling is to expand the research horizons.

Where will the school counselor function? Naturally in the school and at all school levels. We have minimized the work of the school counselor, through default, in the elementary school. The trait-factor theorists in counseling took us off on a measurement binge; the Rogerians made us face up to the real importance of relationship in counseling not that people of other points of view didn't ultimately contend with relationships. With developmental counseling focused on growth and implemented in the school setting, the importance of each pupil developing a counseling relationship and being helped to know and understand the contribution a counselor can make should receive emphasis in the elementary school. If we would do this, junior and senior high school students wouldn't approach the counselor's office with trepidation and wonder "what have I done wrong now," The pupil would have an expectancy for the contribution the counselor can make. The school counselor that will give of himself to his relationships with each counselee is in a position to help each pupil understand more meaningfully the meaning of child study (pupil appraisal) and to promote optimal performance on the assessment and evaluative instruments employed. Maturity plays an important role in all of counseling but young counselees are as open to psychological love, acceptance and understanding as the octogenarian, maybe more so. Counseling and the attendant pupil appraisal activity is important when internal placement and interferences to learning are the focus of attention. The school counselor works here to assist in greater performance in subject matter learning. At the elementary level curricular choices for pupils are few and far between. They may have a role in planning implementation but society determines much of the experiential base to be provided. The school counselor at this level will spend considerable time in direct consultation with teachers and parents to assist them in decision making on behalf of the pupil.

As the pupil matures and moves into the junior and senior high school much more emphasis is placed on self-determination, decision and choice making, and self-understanding. Effective relationships established at the elementary level promote developmental counseling at this level in contrast to much of what goes on today - "closing the barn door after the horse has escaped."

The area of social adjustment has not received much mention. Surely we're concerned with this, so are most of society's institutions. We must remember that much of social adjustment in the school still centers in

settings where subject matter of the curriculum takes front seat. I want the counselor to be sensitive to total development but the school counselor continues to exist as a professional worker in this institution if his services and skills contribute to the unique characteristics of that institution.

In summary, the role of the school counselor is envisaged as a catalyst to human growth and self-understanding. He should spend a $\frac{2}{3}$ majority of his time in one to one counseling or consulting relationships. He is expert in his knowledge of counseling theory and procedures, career development, measurement and the role of the school in developmental behavior of young people. He is an educator; he is also an applied psychologist. He is a counselor because he has preparation for the role and selects this role rather than being promoted to it as a reward for good instruction. Let us recognize the unique role of the counselor in the educational setting. Let us accept, select and prepare those who want to be counselors. Let us strengthen our profession by defining the school counselor's role so that confusion ceases to exist.

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Planning Practicum Facilities

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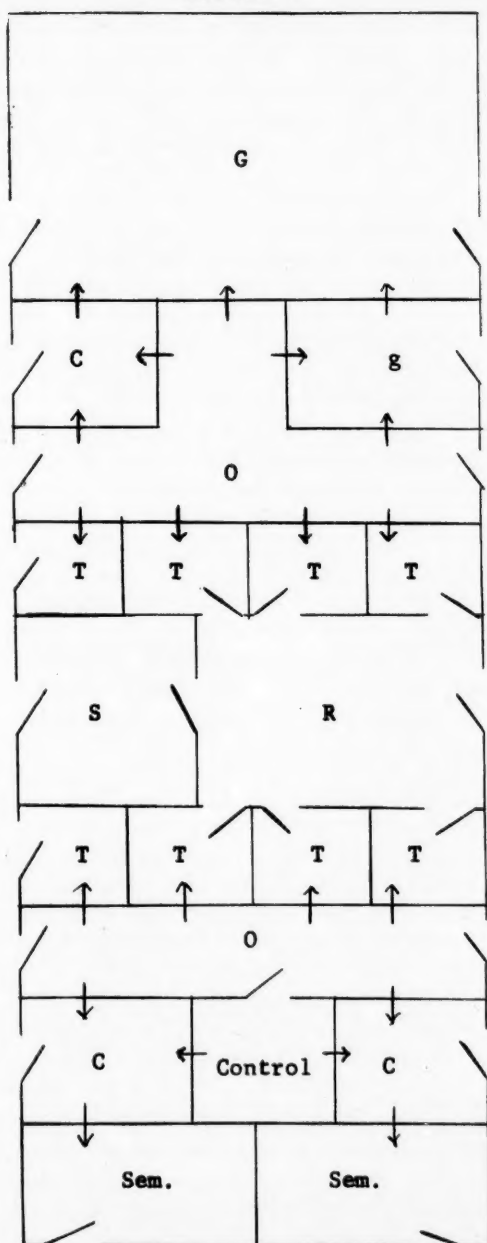
Events of the past five years have resulted in increasing pressure on counselor education programs. The National Defense Education Act in particular has brought to public awareness the shortage of qualified counselors and has also provided the financial means for additional teachers and counselors to return to colleges and universities for professional counseling preparation.

The effect upon the counselor education programs throughout the United States has not been extensively described, but is believed to be extensive. This effect has been apparent at meetings of counselor educators when the discussion has focused, necessarily, upon the crucial issues of philosophy, program and personnel. These are not immutable, however, and indeed, should not be. On the other hand, the physical facilities in which personnel implement the philosophy through the program are relatively fixed and can be modified, if at all, only with great difficulty. As programs expand, an improved possibility for obtaining new facilities can be expected. Present trends would suggest that new or expanded physical facilities for counselor education will include the space necessary for providing practicum experiences. It is the purpose of this article to describe the facilities for providing practicum experiences in the recently completed College of Education building, Wayne State University.

In its initial form, the practicum center requested for guidance and counseling was a compact unit of three counseling rooms and two rooms, one small and one of classroom size, for group work, all with one-way vision and concealed microphones. The balance of the unit was to include a reception and library area, a storage room and a central control room for recording purposes. Rooms for individual and group testing were requested by the Department of Educational and Clinical Psychology, since all instruction in testing is provided through that Department.

The facilities illustrated in Fig. 1 are the result of (1) the sketches and descriptions submitted by the two departments and, (2) the discussion, decisions, and compromises effected by the faculty building com-

FIGURE 1



mittee, the administration of the College and the University, and representatives from the architectural concern of Minoru Yamasaki.

Not shown in the diagram are the faculty offices at each end of the unit. These are separated from it by a corridor. There is a similar arrangement on the north side (viewer's left, except that the corridor is considerably wider and it is here that the clerical staff is located. The corridor on the remaining side provides direct access to the elevators, stairs and other public facilities located in the center of the building. Thus a client getting off the elevator is only a few feet from the reception room (R in Fig. 1). The reception room is also the waiting room for clients. In addition to coat racks and other appropriate waiting room equipment, the reception room contains the files of educational and occupational information for use of clients and students of the College of Education. There is direct internal telephone communication from the reception room to the control room and the two observation galleries (O, Fig. 1). The location and direction of one-way vision windows are indicated in Fig. 1 by arrows. These windows occupy most of the wall space. Careful examination of Fig. 1 will show that it would even be possible to observe observers observing.

All recording and aural monitoring is controlled through the master console and panel in the control room. Master controls are centered here so that the counselor or tester can devote his full attention to the client, rather than to decisions about, and operation of, recording equipment. In order to provide the greatest flexibility the tape recording equipment consists of a permanent bank of six Ampex tape recorders, and four portable Wollensaks with necessary equipment for transcribing. At each observation area there is a headset strip with jacks every eight inches and a volume control for the strip. These are located underneath the writing surface and bookshelf provided for the use of observers. The writing surface is illuminated by a carefully shaded, recessed light. It should be noted that the large group classroom (G in Fig. 1) is equipped with two microphones because of the size of the room. Observers of activities in this room need special binaural headsets if they are to hear adequately. Special patch cords are also required for tape recording of activities in this room.

While the foregoing description may be of help to counselor educators in planning similar facilities, the authors feel that a report of difficulties encountered in the early stages of utilizing the laboratory may be even more helpful.

Acoustics represent a major problem. It would be highly desirable to have an acoustical engineer go over the plans in detail early in the planning stage. In a modern fireproof building, true soundproofing is extremely difficult to get. Cables for the microphones are run through con-

duits in the walls. These conduits act much like speaking tubes and can convey sounds from other floors to the microphones if the latter are wall mounted and not floating, that is, insulated from the wall. Fluorescent lighting is ideal for illumination, but fluorescent tubes can create a hum which a sensitive microphone will pick up. The composition of floors, walls and ceiling can also contribute to the problems of acoustics, or to their solution.

The writing lights provided for the observers are not entirely essential since enough light comes through the one-way windows to illuminate the writing surface. An additional problem presents itself in rooms with observation windows on both walls; the writing lights reflect off the far window.

Galleries which are used for observing in two directions should be sufficiently wide to run a curtain down the center. This would prevent observers from being silhouetted by light from the opposite room.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the major assumption underlying the development of new facilities has not been discussed; *program should determine facilities*. Physical facilities are expensive and cannot be discarded or modified with the same ease as can philosophy or program. Regardless of whether it is desirable or not, it must be recognized that physical facilities can limit and shape the nature of an educational program. The Counseling Laboratory at Wayne is probably one of the finest of its kind in the United States. The challenge is a qualitative one; to make optimum use of the facility in providing improved supervised experiences.

A Summer Guidance Practicum

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A problem common to counselor training programs is that of providing adequate practicum experiences for teachers and counselors studying for guidance certification during summer sessions. Because of the difficulty of providing such experience, many individuals work in the field of guidance without having received any professional supervision in guidance and counseling. The value of such experience has long been recognized. Dugan (1), Hill (2), and Wellington (4) all mentioned the importance of practicum experience in the training of the school guidance counselor in the first issue of this Journal. A recent conference on counselor education included as one of its recommendations "No counselor education program should endorse for full certification or recommend for placement any candidate who has not completed a supervised practicum experience. . ." (3) The task of instituting practica has been complicated due to the lack of supervising staff and financial support. Summer guidance practica face these problems as well as the difficulty of finding readily available clients for graduate students to counsel.

Recognizing the need and value of a practicum program for summer students, Bucknell University implemented a special program which provides practical experience for at least some of its degree candidates. This program served more than the need for a summer practicum. The University Counseling Service receives many calls and inquiries for testing and counseling from interested parents and officials at local high schools. Due to the heavy counseling load at the University, it had not been possible to meet these community needs. Thus, it was decided to establish an experimental testing and counseling program which might meet both the need for testing and counseling in the community and the need for practical training for graduate students. Graduate students in advanced stages of training were selected to participate in a pilot project of group and individual testing and counseling. A thorough background in course work was requisite for participating graduate students, for this program represented an important possibility in community relations.

Information regarding the planned program was released to local papers by the Public Relations office prior to summer school. The director of the practicum program met with the local association of guidance counselors and described the Bucknell summer program, seeking to enlist their cooperation. A letter was also forwarded to each area high school coun-

selor briefly summarizing the practicum and enclosing application blanks. These activities proved especially important in the eventual success of the program for some high school counselors originally expressed some doubt as to the value of such a program. They indicated that outside testing programs had been conducted in the past in their schools and that they never received any test results. From these comments, it was decided to forward carbon copies of test reports and results to the local guidance counselors. This advance meeting resulted in several referrals and a contact for mutual work with local counselors was developed.

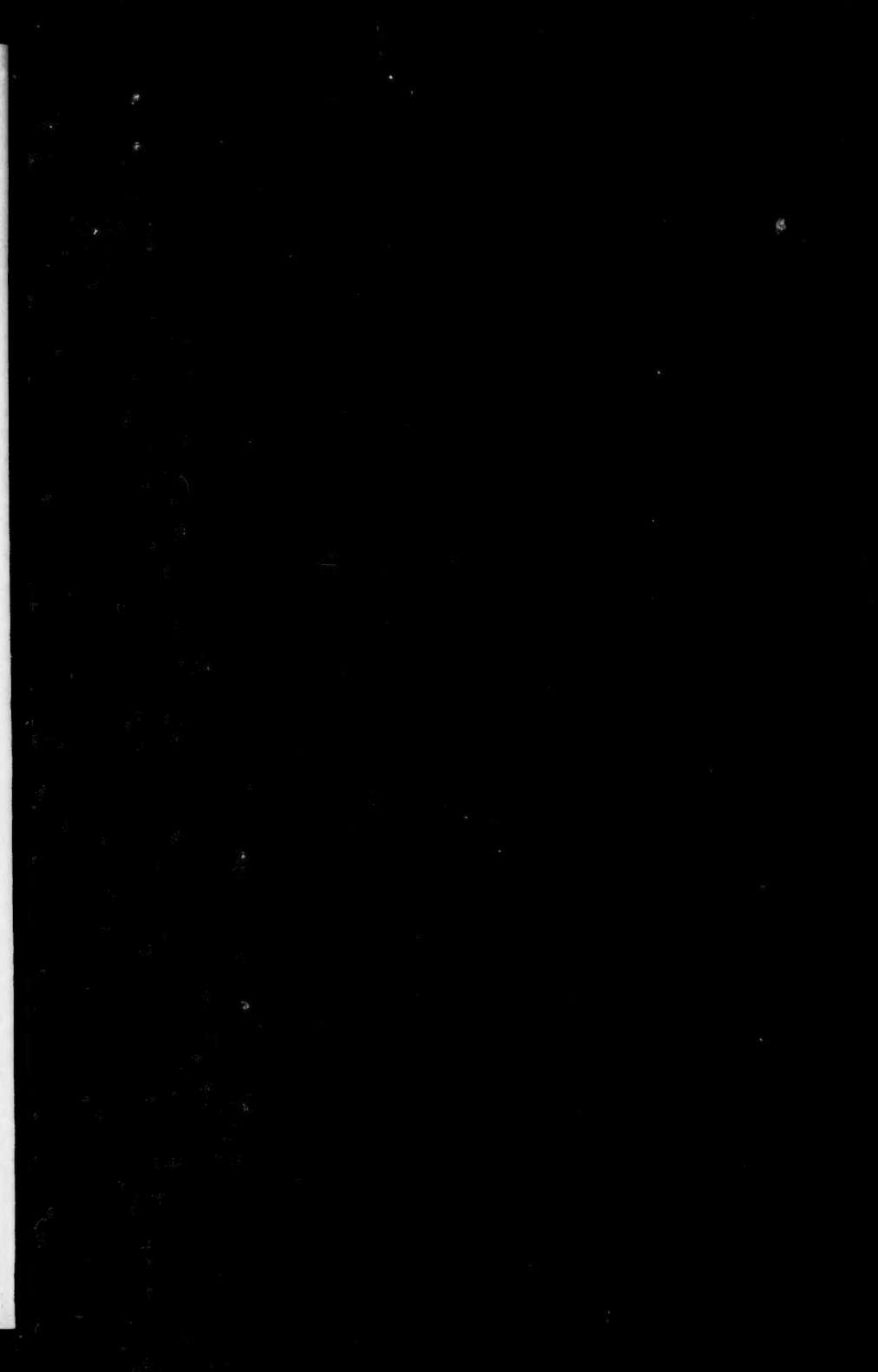
The program began officially on the first day of summer school with a group meeting of the student counselees and their parents. The graduate students and the director of the program made brief presentations describing the program in detail, emphasizing the values and limitations of tests. Following the presentation, group testing sessions began and continued through the day. Two additional days of group testing followed. All tests were administered by the graduate students under supervision of the director. The following tests were included in the group battery: 1. The School and College Ability Tests and the full series of the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress. 2. The Differential Aptitude Test battery. 3. The Strong Vocational Interest Blank. 4. The California Occupational Interest Inventory. 5. The Brown-Holtzman Inventory of Study Habits.

The S.T.E.P. - S.C.A.T. series was chosen since it makes possible the evaluation of several important areas of subject concentration and the administration of different grade levels of the test simultaneously. The Occupational Interest Inventory and the Strong were chosen to avoid duplication of another interest test used commonly in the area. No personality measures were included in the test battery for it was felt that the program should center around vocational and educational planning rather than personal counseling within the limited time available. Further, the academic background of the graduate students did not prepare them for personal counseling.

Following the administration of group tests, arrangements were made for two hour appointments with the graduate students. The first hour was spent in the administration of an individual intelligence test, the W.A.I.S. or W.I.S.C. The second hour was spent in review of a personal history form and introduced the student to the counselor.

Subsequently, all tests were scored and profiled by the graduate students with the exception of the Strong which was machine scored by a commercial firm. It might be noted that the tests used in this battery provide attractive forms which make graphic portrayal of test results meaningful to high school students. The graduate students met in seminar with the director of the program to discuss each individual counselee





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